# Orders Modulo A Prime

How to make life easier

by M Ahsan Al Mahir on August 22, 2020

### Recap

- \* Euler and Fermat's Theorem
- \* Modular Inverses
- \* Bezout's Identity

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We all know the following theorem, right?

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We can use this theorem in the following way:

$$a^{\mathsf{m}} \equiv a^{\mathsf{m} \pmod{\phi(\mathsf{n})}} \pmod{\mathsf{n}}$$

So for example, if  $n = 12, \phi(12) = 4$  and so:

$$7^{13} \equiv 7^{13 \; (\mathsf{mod} \; 4)} \equiv 7^1 \; (\mathsf{mod} \; 12)$$

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- \* Euler and Fermat's Theorem
- \* Modular Inverses
- Bezout's Identity

$$\mathsf{ab} \equiv 1 \ (\mathsf{mod} \ \mathsf{n})$$

If a and n are coprime integers, then there exists a positive integer b < n such that

$$ab \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

Why do we need inverses?

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Why do we need inverses? We can use them in place of division by a:

$$\frac{1}{\mathsf{a}} \equiv \mathsf{b} \; (\mathsf{mod} \; \mathsf{n})$$

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Why do we need inverses? We can use them in place of division by a:

$$\frac{1}{a} \equiv b \; (mod \; n)$$

So adding or multiplying by  $\frac{1}{a}$  is just adding or multiplying by b modulo n.

So if there are two integers s, t such that

$$a^s \equiv a^t \pmod{n}$$

then we can say

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In other words, if a is coprime to n, we can divide congruences modulo n by a.

Note that if  $gcd(a, n) \neq 1$ , then it doesn't hold.

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Just like that gcd(n, a) must divide 1, because it divides ab-1. And so the gcd has to be 1.

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- \* Bezout's Identity

Another useful identity to remember is for all integer a, b, we will find two integers x, y such that

$$ax + by = gcd(a, b)$$

#### **Orders**

- \* Why do we care?
- \* So what is "Order"?
- \* Important Properties of Order
- \* Usage in Problems
- \* Something more fundamental
- \* Conclusion

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You can do:

$$10^{72} \equiv 1 \; (\text{mod } 73)$$
 and,  $561 \equiv 57 \; (\text{mod } 72)$  so,  $10^{561} \equiv 10^{57} \; (\text{mod } 73)$ 

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 and,  $561 \equiv 57 \; (\text{mod } 72)$  so,  $10^{561} \equiv 10^{57} \; (\text{mod } 73)$ 

But then again, you need to count  $10^{57}$  which is near impossible!!

But what if I told you,

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Then your life would become so easy that you could just write

$$10^{561} \equiv 10^{561~(\text{mod}~8)} \equiv 10^1~(\text{mod}~73)$$

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In our previous example, since  $10^8 \equiv 1 \pmod{73}$ , we say

$$\mathsf{Ord}_{73}(10) = 8$$

As more example, below are given the orders of a modulo 11 and 13:

а	mod 11	$\bmod \ 13$	а	mod 11	$\bmod \ 13$
1	1	1	7	10	12
2	10	12	8	10	4
3	5	3	9	5	3
4	5	6	10	2	6
5	5	4	11		12
6	10	12	12		2

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An interesting thing you might have noticed in the last slide: all of the orders modulo 11 were factors of  $10=\phi(11)$  , that are 1,2,5,10.

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Is this is a coincident or are there more to it?

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Suppose m  $\not\mid \phi(n).$  So  $\phi(n) = mq + r$  for some q and r with r < m. (Euclidean division)

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If m is the order of a modulo n, then  $m|\phi(n)$ 

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Which gives us:

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv a^{mq+r} \equiv (a^m)^q \times a^r \equiv a^r \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

But m is the smallest such positive number, so r can't be smaller than m unless r = 0!

In fact if 
$$m = Ord_n(a)$$
 and for some  $x$ ,

$$\mathbf{a^x} \equiv 1 \; (\text{mod n})$$

then m|x

I leave its proof to you!

If for some positive integer s, t we have

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## If for some positive integer s, t we have

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then  $s \equiv t \pmod{Ord_n(a)}$ 

We solve it by remembering that  $a^{s-t} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  and that  $Ord_n(a)|s-t. So,$ 

$$s \equiv t \pmod{Ord_n(a)}$$

Now we use the idea of orders to prove the following very important theorem:

For an odd prime p, if 
$$\mathbf{a}^2 \equiv -1 \; (\text{mod p}),$$
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Can you solve it using the properties discussed earlier?

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Because then  $a^2$  would not be congruent to -1 modulo p.

So  $Ord_p(a) = 4$  and that gives us:

$$4|\phi(\mathbf{p}) \implies 4|\mathbf{p}-1|$$

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Orders

Now that we know what orders are, we can try using them in solving problems. Consider the following problem:

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So we want to make n as the order of some integer modulo  $a^n - 1$ .

We have  $a^n \equiv 1 \pmod{a^n - 1}$ . Now for any integer m < n, we have

$$a^{\mathsf{m}} - 1 < a^{\mathsf{n}} - 1 \implies a^{\mathsf{n}} - 1 \not | a^{\mathsf{m}} - 1$$

We have  $a^n \equiv 1 \pmod{a^n - 1}$ . Now for any integer m < n, we have

$$a^m - 1 < a^n - 1 \implies a^n - 1 / a^m - 1$$

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And so we have

$$n | \phi(a^n - 1)$$

Orders

Prove that if p is a prime number, then every prime divisor of  $2^{p}-1$  is greater than p.

#### Another problem:

Prove that if p is a prime number, then every prime divisor of  $2^p-1$  is greater than p.

A general tip for these kind of "everything is greater than" problem, it is usually helpful to assume the contrary.

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### Another problem:

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A general tip for these kind of "everything is greater than" problem, it is usually helpful to assume the contrary.

In our case, it will help if instead of showing that all the prime factors are indeed greater than p, we assume that there is a prime factor q smaller than p, and show contradiction.

$$\mathsf{q}|2^\mathsf{p}-1 \implies 2^\mathsf{p} \equiv 1 \; (\mathsf{mod} \; \mathsf{q})$$

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We use our knowledge of orders and say that there is an integer  $n \le q-1$  such that  $2^n \equiv 1 \pmod q$ . Do you see the complication here?

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Yes! If such n existed, then that would mean n|p! But it can't be true, since  $n \le q-1 < p$ , but divides p, a prime number.

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Wait, but 1|p, so if n = 1, it may happen right?

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No! That would mean  $q|2^1 - 1$  which means q|1...

So there can't be a prime  ${\bf q}<{\bf p}$  that divides  $2^{\bf p}-1,$  and our problem is solved!

## Another problem similar to the previous one:

Prove that if p is a prime, then there is a prime greater than p that divides  $p^p-1$ .

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 $\text{Ord}_q(p)|p$ 

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And so 
$$Ord_q(p) = 1$$
 and:

$$q|p-1$$

Do you remember the factorization formula of  $a^n - 1$ ??

$$a^{n} - 1 = (a - 1) (a^{n-1} + a^{n-2} \cdots + a + 1)$$

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We have found that if q < p, and  $q|p^p - 1$ , then q|p - 1. But what about the  $(p^{p-1} + p^{p-2} \cdots + p + 1)$  part? No smaller prime divides this number.

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So there must be a prime bigger than p that divides this number!!

Just before we proved that there is a prime q larger than p that divides  $\mathsf{p}^\mathsf{p}-1$ . Then by order's properties, we need to have

$$\operatorname{Ord}_{\mathsf{q}}(\mathsf{p}) = \mathsf{p} \ \mathrm{or} \ \operatorname{Ord}_{\mathsf{q}}(\mathsf{p}) = 1$$

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That means  $q - 1 = pk \implies q = pk + 1$  for some integer k.

- \* Why do we care?
- \* So what is "Order"?
- \* Important Properties of Order
- \* Usage in Problems
- \* Something more fundamental
- \* Conclusion

As you have seen, orders are really interesting when the modulo is a prime. And since the order always divide p  $-\,1$ , a natural question comes up:

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When is the order equal to p-1?

We have a special name for such a's for which

$$Ord_p(a) = p - 1$$

We call an integer a smaller than p a Primitive Root modulo p if the order of a modulo p is p-1.

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And for 13 the primitive roots mod 13 are

We won't dive too deep into the world of primitive roots, since it is really Huge, we will just see why they are so important!

If g is primitive root modulo p, then the two sets

$$\left\{ \textbf{g}^{1},\textbf{g}^{2}\ldots\textbf{g}^{\textbf{p}-1}\right\}$$
 and  $\left\{ 1,2,3\ldots\textbf{p}-1\right\}$ 

are equal in modulo p.

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are equal in modulo p.

In the case of 11, we can work it out by hand, if we take the primitive root 2 the left set becomes:

$g^k$	mod 11	$g^k$	mod 11
2	2	64	9
4	4	128	7
8	8	265	3
16	5	512	6
32	10	1024	1

So if we can find a primitive root, we can just keep multiplying it

to itself and get the whole set  $\{1, 2, \dots p-1\}$ . Pretty cool huh?

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In short, orders are the smallest integer m that gives us  $a^m \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , and they appear everywhere once you start looking for them.

» Further Reading

 $\mathbf{a}^{\mathbf{n}} \pm \mathbf{1}$  by Yufei Zhao

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 $a^n \pm 1$  by Yufei Zhao

Orders Modulo A Prime by Evan Chen

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 $a^n \pm 1$  by Yufei Zhao

Orders Modulo A Prime by Evan Chen

Topics in Number Theory: An Olympiad-Oriented Approach by Masum Billal and Amir Hossein Parvardi